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FURY OF THE PLAINS

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How do you farm a land that's sometimes humid, sometimes desert, sometimes a cross between the two?

The Great Plains is such a land—and ever since their settlement in the latter part of the last century men have proposed various ways of coping with the climate. No one has all the answers yet—witness the damage done by the latest drought.

The Plains—a 300- to 400-mile-wide belt that stretches from Canada to Mexico—are so situated as to be swept successively by moist and dry, cold and hot air masses that make the region a "meteorological battleground."

In the Eastern United States, rain results when warm moisture-laden air from the South Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico travels north until it meets a wall of cold dry polar air moving down from Canada. The warm moist air is forced upward and chilled and as a result moisture falls as rain.

In the Plains, most warm air entering the region comes from Mexico; this air is so dry to begin with that it has little or no water to spill when forced upward by cold polar air from the north. Thus, the Plains' climate is basically dry—untouched, for the most part, by moisture-laden Gulf air which normally curves east toward the Atlantic.

But now and then a wayward weather front from the Gulf does move west into the Plains bringing rain. The regional average is 20 inches of precipitation a year—though the range is from 25 inches in south Texas to less than 12 inches in northern Montana.

Occasionally a moist tropical front collides with a dry polar air mass with such force that violent rainstorms or heavy snows ensue. Wherever this happens, as much as a third of the average annual supply of precipitation may fall on a single day, or as much as a fifth in a single hour.

Were this not enough, the marching of the warring air masses also brings other hazards to farmers on the Plains—hot, dry winds or hailstorms or tornadoes during the summer; unexpected killing frosts in spring and fall; sudden and sharp swings in surface temperatures—which have been known to drop as much as 60° F. in only a few hours.

Still drought is the biggest curse of the region. Drought periods—when actual precipitation is far short of requirements for normal crop growth and adequate moisture storage in streams and reservoirs—have been recorded for nigh onto a century and weather experts have worked out a formula of frequencies:

—Drought periods of 35 or more consecutive days can be expected annually.

—Periods of between 60 and 70 days are likely to occur about once every 10 years.

—Less often drought periods may reach 90 days in the Northern Plains and 120 days in the Southern Plains.

Occurrence of the great droughts—like those of the 1930's and the early 1950's—follows no apparent pattern.

(The recent drought in Texas-Oklahoma-New Mexico lasted from autumn 1970 until late in July 1971 when some help came.)

Why would anyone want to farm a land so seemingly hostile? The first pioneers who set eyes on the treeless Plains didn't—they spurned the vast meadow that was the Plains at that time and hurried on to California and Oregon.

Up to the end of the Civil War, the Plains remained pretty much the do-

main of buffalo and roving bands of Indians.

Then in the postwar years came cattlemen, who found lush feeding for their herds on the natural vegetation of the Plains—short grasses which go dormant during dry spells and produce seed in a remarkably short time after it rains. The almost universal cover of short grasses and the compaction of the soil prior to settlement was Nature's protection against wind erosion and water run-off even after the heaviest downpours.

Cowboys weren't alone on the Plains for long, however. The Homestead Act and the lure of all that virgin land encouraged farmers to try their luck in the new territory. And, at first, it seemed a lucky land indeed.

The 1880's, when many of these sodbusters settled on the Plains, was one of the region's rainier periods. In fact, some settlers subscribed to the notion that it was their coming—and the spread of cultivation—that was causing it to rain more. They were soon disillusioned for the 1890's saw the first of the ruinous droughts. So bad was it that entire towns were abandoned in western Kansas, one of the hardest hit areas.

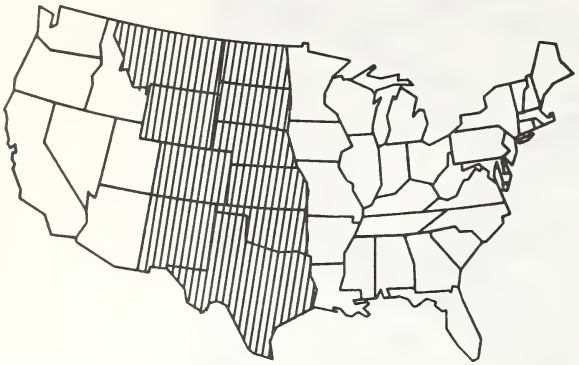
But this adversity mothered the development of a new farming technique for the Plains. Dry farming it was called, and its sole aim was to conserve the soil's scant moisture supply by reducing run-off and evaporation and by increasing the absorption and retention of moisture by the soil. The dry farming routine involved summer fallowing and maintaining a dust mulch by cultivating after every summer rain.

Dry farming—better known to farmers as summer fallowing—caught on fast in the Plains because it did indeed save moisture. Trouble was, all that cultivating ruined the soil's structure and when the winds came, the soil blew away. Enthusiasm for dry farming waned well before World War I.

Our own Twentieth Century has plenty of instances showing farming on the Great Plains is still somewhat of a gamble.

Early in 1905, the Plains went through one of their rainiest periods in history. Five years later, by 1910, all of the southern and part of the northern Plains had become vast deserts during one of the driest years on record.

Then came 20 good years. World War I encouraged a boom in cattle feeding during the 19-teens. Following the War were lots of new developments in farm mechanization. A whole bunch of new machines made wheat production on the Plains cheap and easy at a time when the crop was commanding



The Great Plains States

Montana	South Dakota
Wyoming	Nebraska
Colorado	Kansas
New Mexico	Oklahoma
North Dakota	Texas

high market prices. Farmers took advantage of the rainier-than-average 1920's to go in for wheat production in a big way. By 1930 virtually all of the Plains had been plowed and the native short grasses were almost extinct.

The beginning of the end for many Plains farmers came in 1931. It was the first of a 6-year drought, with the worst coming in 1934 and 1936. Coupled with the Great Depression, the drought left much of the area bankrupt.

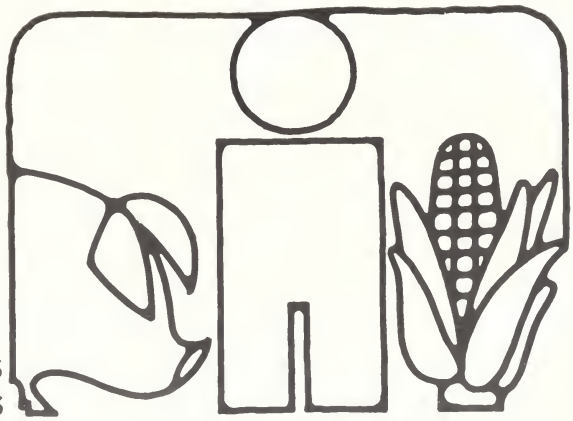
Worse, the widespread cultivation of the Plains during the 1920's had opened the soil to more wind erosion. The dry Plains became the Dust Bowl as the winds swept away the area's richest resource, topsoil.

There have been two other major droughts since the Dust Bowl days. One occurred in the Central and Southern Plains during 1952–57 and it, too, was accompanied by dust storms. Another drought struck the Southern Plains last year and this year.

The drought of the 1950's prompted Congress to pass legislation establishing a special Great Plains Conservation Program with the all-important goal of getting a permanent vegetative cover back on Plains cropland with a high risk of wind and water erosion.

Under the program, the Federal Government will pay 50 to 80 percent of the total cost of 24 designated conservation practices—including conversion of cropland to permanent grass cover, reseeding of pastures and ranges, livestock water development, fencing, terracing, windbreaks, and irrigation system improvement. In return, farmers and ranchers must agree to adopt a "conservation package" on their farms and ranches.

But progress is slow. As recently as mid-1968, some 10 million Plains acres particularly susceptible to wind and water erosion were still under cultivation. The big reason: even on low-grade land income per crop acre has topped per acre returns for livestock in recent years.



FARMING'S INS AND OUTS

Farmers continued their shifts to more purchased inputs and less labor in 1970.

Between 1950 and 1970, the index of purchased inputs—those requiring cash outlays—advanced from 68 to 106. These inputs include fertilizer and lime, feed, seed, livestock purchased, taxes and interest, machinery repairs and parts, and other nonfarm inputs.

The farm labor index fell more than 100 points during 1950 to 1970 with a 2-point decline last year.

Here are some comparisons with 1969.

Labor used on farms decreased 168 million hours in 1970 to 6.5 billion. A breakdown shows 3.2 billion hours were used on crops, 2.4 billion for livestock, and 0.9 billion for maintenance and odd chores.

Expanded acreage and production of soybeans, peanuts, and flaxseed prompted additional labor on those crops while others showed a decline. Hours of labor shrank for all classes of livestock ranging from 6 percent in caring for milk cows to less than 1 percent for meat animals.

The reduction in the corn crop and drought's impact on other feed grains dropped labor productivity for crops for the first time in 2 decades. However, the increase in livestock productivity was enough to raise output for each hour of labor another notch.

Total farm inputs, purchased and nonpurchased, advanced 1 percent in 1970 while output went down 1 percent, consequently, farm output compared with input slipped 2 percent.

Despite the reduction, the smaller farm labor force with its additional production inputs still expanded the number of consumers supplied by each farmworker from 45 in 1969 to 47 last year.

Total agricultural output in 1970—crops and livestock—retreated a single percent from the peak of a season earlier, because a 4-percent decline in crops more than offset a 5-percent gain for livestock.

Triggering the crop reduction was a 9-percent drop for feed grains and a 6-percent slip for food grains. In all, six of the nine crop groups were down.

Southern corn leaf blight and drought cut yields, especially for feed grains, soybeans, and hay. Hardest hit regions were the Corn Belt with an 11-percent decline in crop yields and Northern Plains with a 13-percent reduction. Only the Delta States, Southern Plains, and Northeast managed to up yields in 1970.

While crop production suffered a reverse, livestock achieved record output. A top mark in meat animal production was attributable to increases of 6 percent for cattle and calves, 7 percent for hogs, 3 percent for sheep and lambs, and a slight gain for dairy products. Combined production of poultry and eggs was better than ever.

SPOTLIGHT ON COLORADO

"Keeping track of agricultural statistics in Colorado is almost like tabulating two different States at once," says Floyd Rolf, Statistician in Charge of SRS' Crop and Livestock Reporting Service in the Centennial State.

"East of here," continued Rolf as he looked out the windows of his Denver office, "Colorado is a Plains State with wheat, corn, and other crops typical of the Midwest. Right now part of that area is a bit dry.

"West, we're a Mountain State. There's usually no moisture problem there because melting snows from some of the Nation's highest peaks water the valleys. Up in those valleys we count fruit, potato, and vegetable production.

"And, of course, SRS keeps track of livestock which are spread all over the State."

Beef cattle are Colorado's biggest farm enterprise, with feeding expanding rapidly, according to Rolf.

At the start of 1971, cattle on the State's ranches and farms numbered over 3.5 million, the highest count ever and 7 percent more than the year before. Beef cow numbers were up 5 percent, while dairy cows were down 5 percent.

Rolf noted that the upsurge in fed cattle numbers was really the thing to watch. On June 1, 1971, an estimated 905,000 cattle were being fed on the State's lots, 19 percent more than a year earlier. Constant growth has marked Colorado's feeding industry in recent years: In 1969 numbers rose 12 percent; in 1968, 13 percent.

"The world's largest feedlot is located just 50 miles northeast of here near Greeley," Rolf remarked. "It can turn out over 500,000 fed cattle a year."

Cattle and calves usually account for nearly two-thirds of total cash receipts by Colorado farmers.

Cattle aren't the only livestock fed in Colorado. The State leads the Nation in sheep and lambs on feed, too. On January 1, 1971, ranchers had 480,000 sheep and lambs on feed, up 9 percent from a year earlier.

The sheep feeding complex is also located mainly northeast of Denver, in sugarbeet country where beet tops make a good feed supply.

This section of Colorado contains most of the State's irrigated sugarbeet acreage. Last year, over 146,000 acres of sugarbeets were harvested. At around 2.4 million tons, Colorado's sugarbeet production stood third in the Nation, behind California and Idaho.

Other crops that grow in Colorado's eastern section include corn, wheat, sorghum, and barley—all crops typical of the neighboring Midwest—and related to the cattle feeding industry.

Irrigation plays an important role with most of these crops since the added water usually gives a big boost to yields. For example, during 1969, farmers irrigated 256,000 acres of corn harvested for grain with yields averaging 98.4 bushels per acre. Colorado farmers also harvested 27,000 acres of corn that was not irrigated with yields averaging 20.5 bushels per acre.

Sorghum is another crop that shows great yield increases from irrigation. During 1969, the 98,000 irrigated acres produced an average of 67 bushels of grain per acre, while 207,000 non-irrigated acres averaged only 21-plus bushels.

In a survey conducted by SRS and the Colorado Department of Agriculture in 1967 Colorado's commercial fruit growers, mostly in the western edge of the State, reported almost 1.5 million trees of all ages in peach, apple, pear, and cherry orchards. Peach and apple trees, around 600,000 of each, led all the rest.

In 1969, Colorado fruit production was worth over $6.8 million. Most of the value came from 80 million pounds of apples and almost 33 million pounds of peaches.

Other important crops:

—In 1970, Colorado produced 13 million hundredweight of potatoes. The main growing area is the San Luis Valley in the south central section of the State.

—Commercial vegetable production earned farmers over $17 million in 1970. Top crops were onions and lettuce, which brought $5 million each.

Top: Cattle consume mountains of feed in the world's largest feedlot near Greeley. **Bottom:** Irrigated sugarbeet acreage provides Colorado with the raw materials to support a thriving sugar industry. The beet tops end up as feed for sheep and lambs.

SEMIDWARF WHEAT

It's a rare revolution that's quiet and productive. Only the current Green Revolution may fit this description. The main cadre here are the new semidwarf wheats, with yields twice those of traditional varieties in developing countries.

For example, the new high yielding varieties (HYV)—plus fertilizer and better soil management—raised India's total wheat production from 10½ million metric tons in 1966 to over 20 million last year.

In 1970, HYV were seeded on over 5 percent of the world's wheat land, mostly in India, Pakistan, Turkey, Mexico, and about 25 other developing countries. Seeded land for these types leaped from nearly 1½ million acres in 1966 to over 26 million last year. (The 1970 U.S. harvested all-wheat acreage was 44 million.)

Between 1966 and 1970, production in developing areas expanded from 1.6 million metric tons to 22.6 million or 8 percent of all wheat produced in the world last year.

There is something reminiscent of Marco Polo surrounding the HYV. Using two wheat varieties from the United States, Japanese agronomists sometime before 1935 began cross breeding with traditional short local wheats. The result was a plant only 24 inches high but with normal size grain.

This short wheat was brought to this country after World War II. It was unsuitable for direct transplant and experimental work was begun at Washington State University (WSU).

Dr. Norman E. Borlaug, winner of the 1970 Nobel Peace Prize, started work on short-strawed wheat in 1953 with samples from WSU. His efforts were in Mexico under the sponsorship of that government and the Rockefeller Foundation. Further developments in the wheat have occurred in user countries.

In the developing countries the various HYV range in size from 18 to 38 inches. Regular wheat stands between 36 and 48 inches.

The advantage of the short stem is that lodging, or fall-over, is greatly reduced, which cuts losses. Also plant nutrients are not wasted on the stem. All told, the new wheats make far better use of heavy fertilizer and water applications than the local crops in developing areas. The HYV are photoinsensitive and grow equally well in regions or seasons when either long daylight or short days prevail. They are fast maturing, allowing multiple cropping. Rust and disease resistance exceeds that

for the taller wheats. Yields frequently exceed 2 tons per acre in contrast to traditional wheats which only occasionally yield this much.

If there is a negative aspects to HYV, it may be that the taste and texture are different from wheat recently popular in many countries. However, intensive research work to change this situation is being conducted in user countries in cooperation primarily with the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) in Mexico.

Much of the success of the new wheats can be credited to package plans employed by the developing countries to encourage farmers to grow the wheat with the use of improved practices and consumers to use it. Government efforts have included price supports and buying programs, financial inducements, and promotional activities. Private sector contributions are the availability of irrigation, fertilizer, seed, and other inputs.

The HYV production curve will continue upward, though perhaps less briskly than in recent years. Prospects are tied to individual government's policies, the agricultural industry's efficiency, education and investments, and available acreage for wheat.

U.S. SHORTIES

Well over 2 million acres of semidwarf wheats were planted for 1971 harvest in the United States, mainly in the Pacific Northwest.

The plants make good use of nutrients and yields top old marks. Most of the acreage is soft white wheats—used mainly in pastry products.

In Washington and Oregon acreages of these new wheats have expanded at the expense of other varieties. Almost 2 million acres of semidwarf wheat were planted last fall in these two States, nearly 60 percent of their total wheatland. In 1964, the total was about 1.3 million acres, while 5 years earlier in 1959 there was no seeded acreage in these varieties.

HYBRID SOYBEANS

A male-sterile soybean line that took USDA scientists 5 years to develop is a major breakthrough in the search for higher yielding soybean varieties.

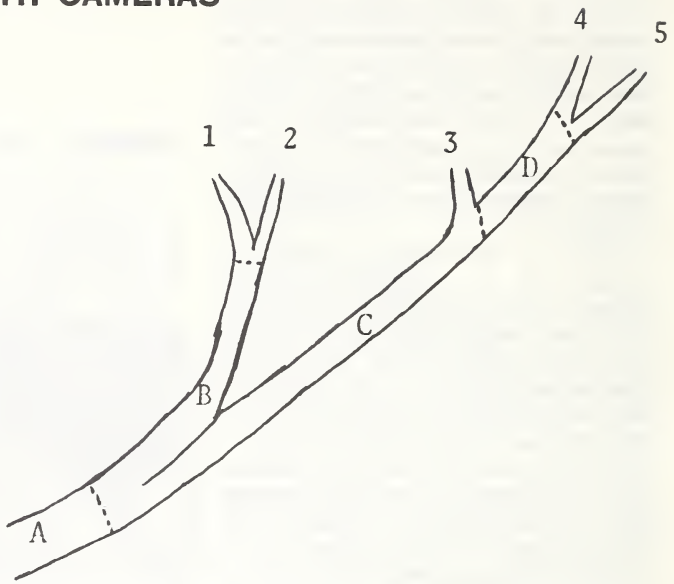
The immediate advantage is plant breeders now have more control over pollination and can try more crosses to improve varieties. The male-sterile line could open the door to development of hybrid soybeans—another possible way of continually breaking the traditional 25-bushel-an-acre yield barrier.

When trying to breed specific characteristics of a plant that's normally self pollinating, scientists need to eliminate the pollen-producing male part so that cross pollination occurs only with another plant having the desirable inheritance. Either the male part must be removed manually, a tedious process or, more desirably, a male-sterile plant utilized. The latter tactic is only partly effective in soybeans because the gene controlling male sterility is recessive and not all plants possess the male-sterile characteristic.

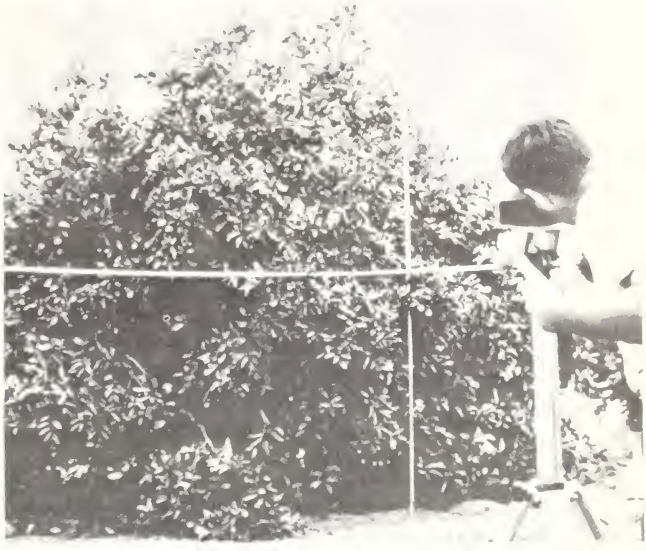
Plant geneticists first used the male sterility system in 1925 in developing high yielding hybrid onions. Since then several other commercial farm crops have been found to have usable types of male sterility: corn, millet, wheat, sugarbeets, carrots, peppers, tobacco, orchard grass—and now soybeans.

The male sterile system was the giant first step in the development of higher yielding, disease resistant hybrid corn in the 1930's. Hybridization and the introduction, over many years, of more improved technology and management helped boost corn yields per acre from an average 37 bushels in 1954 to 89 bushels in 1969.

COUNTING WITH CAMERAS



SRS is going out on more limbs for fruit estimates. In one method, enumerators map a path through tree to locate limb about 5 to 10 percent the circumference of trunk. Fruit count on sample limb can indicate tree's yield. Another approach identifies sample limb in photo of leafless deciduous tree. Even after foliage appears, enumerator easily finds limb and counts fruit.



Snapping photos of quarter sections of tree is less dangerous and difficult than counting fruit in hard to reach parts of trees. Experiments show the fruit counted in photo enlargements provide a good base for yield estimates. These projects are, for the most part, still in the research stage. Most work is being done with citrus, apple and peach trees.

outlook

Digested from outlook reports of the Economic Research Service.
Forecasts based on information available through August 1, 1971

FARMERS' CASH RECEIPTS . . . in first half 1971 at $21.8 billion were about the same as a year earlier. Crop marketings this year are uncertain due to blight and drought, but receipts for all of 1971 might run some $2 billion more than last year's $19.6 billion. Livestock receipts could match, possibly top, 1970's total of $29.6 billion.

●

GROSS FARM INCOME . . . in January–June was at an annual rate of $57.2 billion, just under the rate a year earlier. Through June, prices received were down about 1% from the same period in 1970 . . . marketing volume rose slightly.

●

REALIZED NET FARM INCOME . . . Smaller Government payments plus a continued advance in production expenses in 1971 might keep total realized net farm income from matching last year's $15.7 billion. But fewer farms should keep net income per farm close to the record $5,654 reached in 1969.

●

FED CATTLE . . . Feeders plan to market 2% more cattle this summer than last . . . Marketings this fall should continue to increase topping 1970 levels this year. Spring marketings were up 1½%.

●

MILK COW numbers continue their slow decline totaling 12.4 million head in June. But with January–June production at 4,935 pounds per cow, first-half output was more than 61 billion pounds, 1% over those months in 1970.

●

MILK RECEIPTS . . . Increased receipts in fluid markets are holding down average prices to producers . . . situation reflects a substantial shift of Grade B milk to Grade A standards and markets . . . an action likely to continue.

RECORD SOYBEAN CRUSH . . . 1970–71 crushings likely will top last year's record 738 million bushels by some 25 million . . . Domestic oil use is about the same as last year but exports of soybean oil soared 50% . . . U.S. meal use is up 4% and exports swelled 8% . . . Oil supplies for year ending September 30 are placed at 8.7 billion pounds, 4½% above 1969–70.

●

SOYBEAN CARRYOVER . . . With use ahead of output there should be a sharp drawdown of carryover stocks September 1. Most were held commercially in contrast to last year when Commodity Credit Corporation holdings were high. September figure will be in SRS Soybean Stocks report of September 23.

●

COTTONSEED . . . Oil millers bought 95% of the 1970 crop, 3.9 million tons of cottonseed for crushing, about the same amount and share as in previous year . . . With seed processing slower, the milling season was later . . . Cottonseed oil use fell 17% below 1969–70 because of decline at home and abroad . . . The United Kingdom, Iran, Mexico, Pakistan, and the Netherlands all bought less.

●

INEDIBLE TALLOW . . . For year ending September 30, production of inedible tallow and greases is estimated to rise 8%. Domestic disappearance trails a year ago by about 6% . . . but exports may near 2.7 billion pounds, some 30% above 1969–70.

●

COTTON . . . August 1 stocks were about a fourth less than year earlier because of reduced supplies and larger disappearance in 1970–71. Supplies fell as lower beginning stocks more than offset a slightly larger 1970 crop. Big world demand and smaller competitive supplies boosted U.S. exports one-third over 1969–70's 2.8 billion bales . . . Domestic mill use gained slightly as man-made fiber competition moderated.

●

SPECIAL WINTER WHEAT SURVEY . . . A special July 1 survey shows growers in the 14 major winter wheat States, which planted 87% of the crop in 1971, intend to seed 36.3 million acres for harvest in 1972, 8% over 1971.

●

WINTER WHEAT REGIONAL INTENTIONS . . . Farmers intend to plant winter wheat on: 4.5 million acres in the Corn Belt States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, up 18% from acreage planted for harvest in 1971; 27.5 million acres in the Plains States of South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Montana, and Colorado, up 6%; and 4.4 million acres in the Pacific Northwest States of Idaho, Washington, and Oregon, up 15%.

FARM MACHINERY . . . Except for trucks, pickup balers, and field forage harvesters, farm machine numbers are declining . . . Another noticeable trend: big equipment is replacing smaller 1945–55 vintage machinery on America's farms.

●

FARM LABOR keeps dropping . . . down to 6.5 billion hours in 1970 from 7.0 billion hours in 1969. Improved technology, larger machines will probably mean a further dip this year . . . 1950 tractor horsepower was 28 per 100 acres of cropland harvested, and 21 hours of labor were used per acre of harvest, by 1970 horsepower was 71 per 100 acres . . . labor input down to 11 hours per acre. Meanwhile, tractor horsepower per worker went up from 9 to 46 . . . could reach 60 hp. by 1975.

STATISTICAL BAROMETER

	1969	1970	1971—latest data available	
Prices received by farmers (1967=100)	108	110	113	May
Prices paid, interest, taxes, wage rates (1967=100)	109	114	120	May
Ratio [1] (1967=100)	99	96	94	May
Consumer price index, all items (1967=100)	110	116	122	June
Food (1967=100)	109	115	119	June
Agricultural exports ($ bil.)	5.9	7.2	0.6	June
Agricultural imports ($ bil.)	5.0	5.7	0.5	June
Disposable personal income ($ bil.)	634.2	687.8	741.1	[3]
Expenditures for food ($ bil.)	106.1	114.0	119.7	[3]
Share of income spent for food (percent)	16.7	16.6	16.2	[3]
Farm food market basket: [2]				
Retail cost ($)	1,174	1,225	1,251	June
Farm value ($)	478	480	481	June
Farmer's share of retail cost (percent)	41	39	38	June
Realized gross farm income ($ bil.)	55.5	56.2	57.6	[3]
Production expenses ($ bil.)	38.7	40.9	42.8	[3]
Realized net farm income ($ bil.)	16.8	15.7	14.8	[3]

[1] Ratio of index of prices received by farmers to index of prices paid, interest, taxes, and farm wage rates.
[2] Average quantities per family and single person households bought by wage and clerical workers 1960–61 based on Bureau of Labor Statistics figures.
[3] Annual rate, seasonally adjusted second quarter.

hired farm-workers

U.S. farm operators, as they increase their laborsaving technology, are relying on a more productive but smaller force of hired workers.

In 1970, operators hired 100,000 fewer farm hands—4 percent less—than the year before, continuing a long-term downtrend. Last year's hired farm working force totaled only 2.5 million persons.

The deepest decline among hired farmworkers in 1970 was in the migratory force, which totaled only 196,000 people—24 percent fewer than in 1969. The rest of the hired work force averaged only 1 percent below a year earlier.

The drop in the number of migratory farmworkers reflects further utilization of farm machinery and other laborsaving technology.

About 1.1 million or 40 percent of the hired farm working force were casual workers—who devoted less than 25 days to farm wagework. The number of casuals was nearly 9 percent less than in 1969.

The rest of the hired farmworkers, about 1.4 million, were noncasuals—putting in more than 25 days of farmwork in 1970. However, only 22 percent of this group worked chiefly at farmwork for wages.

Among the 22 percent whose chief work was on the farm, 306,000 worked on the farm year around. This group earned the most—$3,467 for an average 318 days of farm wagework, not including perquisites or other fringe benefits.

As a group, farm wageworkers averaged $11.10 per day and $887 for an average 80 days of work. Wages differed regionally: In the West, farmworkers earned the highest daily pay, $14.70; in the North Central the least, $9.55 a day. White farmworkers averaged both more days of work and higher daily rates—139 days at $11.75; nonwhites averaged 128 days at $9. Migratory workers averaged 123 days at $13.80 per day.

The 1970 hired farm work force was similar in composition to that of the previous year. Among these workers in 1970:

—76 percent were male.

—78 percent were white.

—56 percent (primarily housewives and students) were not in the labor force most of the year.

—The median age was 23 years.

—33 percent were young people 14–17 years of age; over three-fourths (78 percent) of these youths were boys.

—73 percent lived in nonfarm places at the time of the survey, although some lived on farms at some point during the year.

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Editor: Geraldine Schumacher

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